

Plant metabolism: Enzyme regulation by 14-3-3 proteins

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14-3-3 proteins have been found to regulate the plant enzyme nitrate reductase by reversible phosphoserine binding. Plant plasma-membrane H⁺-ATPases, transporters that are activated by the phytotoxin fusaric acid, appear to be regulated in a similar fashion.

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Given their sessile nature, plants need to be particularly responsive to environmental stimuli in order to survive. This environmental adaptation involves signal recognition coupled to the tightly controlled regulation of cellular proteins, such as enzymes and molecular chaperones. Critical enzymatic processes are usually regulated at multiple levels, including, the transcriptional and post-translational levels. Such is the case for nitrate reductase, one of the most regulated of all plant enzymes, which catalyzes a key step in nitrate assimilation — the reduction of absorbed nitrate to nitrite [1]. Recent work has shown that one important mechanism of nitrate reductase regulation involves the binding of a 14-3-3 protein to the phosphorylated enzyme; this appears to be a common mechanism of protein regulation in plants.

Nitrate reductase is a 100 kDa homodimer, each subunit of which is divided into three domains, separated by two hinge regions. The carboxy-terminal electron donor domain, which binds the redox cofactors NADH and FAD, transports electrons *via* an intermediate heme-iron group to the amino-terminal, molybdenum-containing domain, which reduces the bound nitrate to nitrite. The expression of nitrate reductase is inducible and depends on both a light signal and the presence of the substrate nitrate. The enzyme is also subject to post-translational regulation by phosphorylation in response to stimuli such as light levels, the carbon dioxide concentration and nitrate availability.

Nitrate reductase can be inactivated in a matter of hours in response to darkness. This inactivation occurs by a two-step process: phosphorylation of serine 543, within hinge 1 of the protein, followed by binding of nitrate reductase inhibitory protein (NIP) [2–5]. NIP specifically interferes with electron flow between the two metal-dependent cofactor domains of nitrate reductase [5], presumably by altering its conformational state. Removal of part of the amino-terminal domain of nitrate reductase blocks this inactivation process [6]. Nitrate reductase is reactivated

upon dephosphorylation by a microcystin-sensitive phosphatase — probably a type 2A phosphatase — and release of NIP [3,4]. Nitrate reductase activity also varies with changes in Mg²⁺ or Ca²⁺ concentration — millimolar or higher levels are needed to allow NIP binding to, and thus inhibition of, phosphorylated nitrate reductase.

Two groups studying the regulation of spinach nitrate reductase have now identified NIP as a member of the highly conserved family of 14-3-3 proteins [7,8]. These dimeric proteins, originally isolated from brain tissue and named for their gel migration pattern, have been identified as components of diverse biomolecular complexes and ascribed multiple functions (reviewed in [9,10]). Both groups were able to produce tryptic fragments of purified NIP that corresponded to conserved sequences from 14-3-3 proteins. Using monoclonal antibodies, Bachmann *et al.* [7] showed that NIP is a 14-3-3 protein immunologically related to the *Arabidopsis* 14-3-3 protein GF14 ω . Moorhead *et al.* [8] obtained similar results with polyclonal antibodies to mammalian 14-3-3 proteins.

The precise identification of NIP is complicated by the presence of multiple 14-3-3 isoforms in plants — ten have been identified in *Arabidopsis* already (R.J. Ferl, personal communication). From the work of Moorhead *et al.* [8], it appears that at least four 14-3-3 isoforms are capable of inhibiting nitrate reductase, one of which is highly conserved in *Arabidopsis* (R.J. Ferl, personal communication). Attempts to determine the particular 14-3-3 protein(s) that function as NIP(s) generated multiple sequences representing multiple isoforms. This is not surprising, given that 14-3-3 proteins are able to form both homodimers and heterodimers, but it leaves open the question of the active dimeric state of the molecule. Given the current belief that promiscuous partnering by 14-3-3 proteins increases the potential for signalling by multiple pathways, it is tempting to speculate that different NIPs may lie on distinct pathways transducing the signals from different stimuli inside cells.

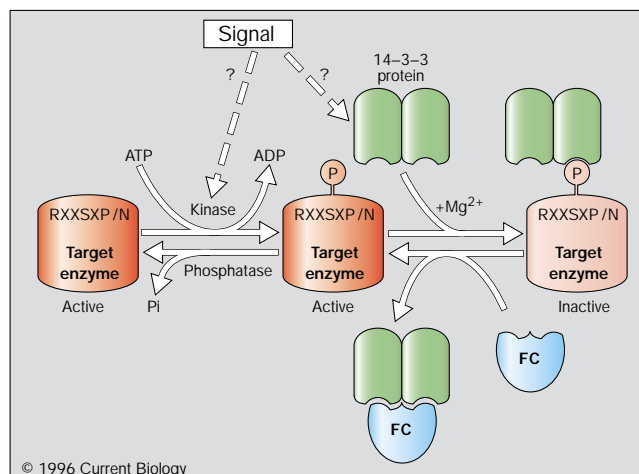
Phosphorylated nitrate reductase is inhibited *in vitro* by recombinant plant (GF14 ω), yeast (BMH1, BMH2) and mammalian (ζ , τ) 14-3-3 proteins, as well as a mixture of mammalian brain 14-3-3 proteins [7,8]. Interestingly, all but the recombinant mammalian 14-3-3 proteins are as potent inhibitors as NIP itself. These results with recombinant proteins suggest that the 14-3-3 proteins do not have to be post-translationally modified to have inhibitory activity; they also suggest that heterodimer formation is not necessary for inhibition, as the recombinant proteins

are homodimers [11]. The recombinant proteins, like spinach NIP, all required millimolar levels of Mg^{2+} for inhibition activity. This may be explained by the finding that GF14 ω has a low-affinity divalent-cation-binding site near its carboxyl terminus; cation binding alters the structure of this domain, as shown by a change in protease sensitivity, and it is possible that only the Mg^{2+} -bound conformation of the 14-3-3 protein can bind and inhibit phosphorylated nitrate reductase.

Mammalian 14-3-3 proteins have been shown to bind signalling proteins such as the kinase Raf-1, the phosphatase Cdc25 and polyomavirus middle T antigen [9,10,12]. From their binding properties, it has been suggested that 14-3-3 proteins regulate signalling pathways and cell growth [13], but there is little direct evidence for this and the regulatory mechanisms are not known. Studies of the interaction with Raf-1 have indicated that 14-3-3 proteins are phosphoserine-binding proteins [14]. A phosphoserine-containing motif — RXXSXP/N, where X can be any amino acid — is present in all the proteins found to interact with 14-3-3 proteins, and binding of 14-3-3 proteins to phosphorylated Raf-1 can block dephosphorylation by the phosphatase PP1. The sequence around serine 543 of nitrate reductase is strikingly similar to the phosphoserine 14-3-3-binding site of Raf-1, and Moorhead *et al.* [8] showed that a phosphopeptide based on this Raf-1 sequence can block NIP. These results strongly suggest that mammalian and plant 14-3-3 proteins bind their target proteins in a similar manner, though it appears that Raf-1 binding by 14-3-3 proteins does not require Mg^{2+} [9,10].

Another known association of 14-3-3 proteins is with the fungal phytotoxin, fusicoccin [15]. Fusicoccin causes wilt in almost all higher plants, because it stimulates stomatal opening and thus water loss. This phytohormone-like effect, and other associated physiological effects of fusicoccin, have been attributed to the activation of plasma membrane ion pumps, specifically plasma-membrane H^+ -ATPase [16,17]. Moorhead *et al.* [8] showed that fusicoccin can disrupt binding of 14-3-3 proteins to phosphorylated nitrate reductase, suggesting there is competition for binding domains on the 14-3-3 proteins. These findings, and the report that the plasma-membrane H^+ -ATPase is regulated by phosphorylation [18], suggest a possible mechanism of H^+ -ATPase activation by fusicoccin: fusicoccin might compete for, and remove, inhibitory 14-3-3 proteins from plasma-membrane H^+ -ATPase molecules, which would be reactivated as a result. To test this notion, Moorhead *et al.* [8] added the Raf-1-derived phosphopeptide to radish plasma-membrane preparations, and found that it resulted in a three-fold activation of the H^+ -ATPase. Identical results were obtained by adding fusicoccin or protein phosphatase 2A, suggesting that phosphorylation allows binding of 14-3-3 proteins to the plasma membrane H^+ -ATPase. It should be noted, however, that the

Figure 1



A two-step model for enzyme regulation by 14-3-3 proteins. In the first step, the target protein is phosphorylated by a kinase at a serine residue in the context of a short target sequence; this allows the second step, binding by the 14-3-3 protein that inhibits the target enzyme. The enzyme can be reactivated by competitive removal of the 14-3-3 protein, for example by fusicoccin (FC) in the recent experiments of Moorhead *et al.* [8], or dephosphorylation of the target enzyme by a phosphatase.

plasma-membrane H^+ -ATPase lacks a serine in a similar context to the Raf-1 phosphorylation site.

Taken together, the nitrate reductase and H^+ -ATPase studies point to a common mechanism for enzyme regulation by 14-3-3 proteins (Fig. 1). The target enzyme would be regulated by phosphorylation and binding of a 14-3-3 protein; this process would be contingent upon the cellular levels of the 14-3-3 protein, the kinase and phosphatase that act on the target enzyme, and Mg^{2+} . This complex contingency, as well as the large number of possible 14-3-3 isoform combinations, allows for multiple regulatory controls on the target enzyme activity. Such a scheme may also apply to mammalian systems; indeed, it is interesting to note that most mammalian 14-3-3-binding proteins identified to date are kinases or phosphatases, and may actually be recruited as tools for modification of target enzymes, rather than final targets. This view is consistent with the finding that binding to 14-3-3 proteins does not independently affect the enzymatic activity of the Raf-1 kinase and Cdc25 phosphatase [9,10,12].

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